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EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

A number of the volumes of the report of the Cleveland survey have appeared during the summer. One of the most important general volumes of the report is that prepared by Dr. Ayres on school organization and administration.¹ The school system of Cleveland has had a very interesting history. It has passed through several epochs in the effort to develop a satisfactory relation between the business management of the school system and the instructorial departments. There was a time when the Cleveland school system was organized in such a way that the director of the schools, who was the business manager, appointed the superintendent. At that time the instructional department was distinctly subordinated to the business organization. Furthermore, from time to time the Board of Education in the city of Cleveland has passed through those stages of political distraction which have been so common among school boards in American cities.

At the present time the school board is entirely free from any suspicion of politics. The division between the business activities of the school system and the instructional activities still maintains, but there is no interdependence between the director and the superintendent. Both are independent officers appointed by the Board.

With this situation before him Dr. Ayres proceeds to give an account of, first, the statutes under which the Board and other school officers operate and, secondly, the business and procedure of the Board. He then gives a detailed analysis of the administrative organization, comments on the purchase of textbooks and the relation of the purchase of textbooks to appointments and Board activities, and, finally, makes a number of recommendations with regard to changes in the existing situation.

¹ *School Organization and Administration*. By Leonard P. Ayres. Cleveland: Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 135.

The business of the Board of Education is transacted at the present time in such a way that the general board meetings pass in detail on practically every item that comes before the Board. The roll is called and a record is made in each case where the Board takes action on financial matters, with the result that the whole time of the Board is absorbed in passing on a great number of petty details. Dr. Ayres has counted up the number of roll-calls and has given an account of the different types of business carried on by the Board. His case seems to be fairly clear that this is not an economical method of transacting business. It would be better for the Board of Education to work out the details of its business through committees and leave time for the general board meeting to discuss matters of broad policy.

Perhaps the most striking part of this report is a discussion of the relation of the Board of Education and the superintendent to the history of the purchase of textbooks. There have been in times past periods when Cleveland has been distracted by school politics. In these cases it has been freely charged and countercharged that book companies were involved in the political situation. Dr. Ayres has brought together tables showing the distribution of purchases of textbooks. These have been correlated with the periods of tenure of office of various superintendents. There is a most striking parallelism between the distribution of book purchases and appointments of superintendents. This does not, of course, prove that the book companies have in any wise interfered with the actions of the Board and it does not prove that the Board has been influenced by book companies; but it does give in a very concrete way the ground for the suspicion often expressed that book companies are connected with the dismissal and appointment of superintendents. Such a discussion as this serves in a very important sense of the word to bring out with clearness the grounds of many of the vague attitudes which people have toward school organization and school politics.

Having made a case, as in the foregoing chapters, to show that the school organization of Cleveland needs careful consideration and possible reconstruction, Dr. Ayres develops in some detail the view that there must be a centralized authority if the work of

the schools is to go forward harmoniously. The centralized authority, he holds, ought to be in the hands of the officer who is in charge of instruction and all that is related to the instructional work of the school.

Dr. Ayres has shown that, in fact, the tendency has been away from this emphasis on instruction. The increase in the expenditures in recent years in the central office has favored very distinctly the business office. Furthermore, it is the business office which originates by all odds the largest number of items of business to be carried before the Board. This preponderance of business and the influence of financial matters in any board organization is natural, in view of the urgent character of financial considerations and in view of the fact that most of the members of the Board are business people and interested in that phase of the school organization; but it must be urged by school people the more vigorously because of this natural tendency to emphasize business that instruction is the chief undertaking of the school and that the whole organization of the school ought to be bent in the direction of improving instruction and supporting it in every possible way.

This handbook on school organization growing out of a careful discussion of a practical situation will be very helpful in molding opinion and in the establishment of better relations between boards of education and school superintendents. A series of studies of this kind worked up in detail and dealing with various cities would ultimately give a basis for a clear, general definition of the relation here under discussion.

A second volume¹ of the report of the Cleveland survey which may be mentioned deals with the garment trades and outlines the social and economic situation of the workers in this field. This volume points out the fact that there has been a rapid growth of this industry and that the development of machinery has created a demand for a certain type of skill which was not required in the early days of the simpler industry. There are a number of shops in Cleveland which manufacture clothing on a large scale. These use a great many workers. The typical workers can be described

¹ *The Garment Trades*. By Edna Bryner. Cleveland: Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 153.

in terms of the general summary, which gives an account of the people who are here concerned:

Machine operating is the largest garment trade. It employs 47 out of every 100 clothing workers. Hand sewing employs 23 out of every 100, while pressing employs 10 and cutting 7. No other industry in Cleveland employs women in such large numbers. In men's clothing factories the ratio of women to men is two to one, while in women's clothing factories it is three to two. The proportion of women is likely to increase on account of the increasing use of the section work system.

Cutting and pressing are performed almost entirely by men; while hand sewing is performed by women. Most designers are men; but there is no valid reason why women should not do this work provided they secure the necessary trade and technical training.

Machine operating, the largest trade, employs two women to each man. The women, as a rule, are engaged in the operating on light-weight materials which require delicacy in handling, and on work which can be learned in a relatively short time; while the men are engaged on heavy materials, and in difficult work which their previous tailoring experience makes easy for them.

Foremanship positions are apportioned between men and women somewhat as the work which is supervised is apportioned between the two sexes. Foremen are in charge of cutting and pressing; forewomen are in charge of finishing and button sewing; while both direct machine operating.

Four-fifths of the men and two-fifths of the women are foreign born and the majority of the native born workers are of foreign parentage. Many hand sewers and most designers are foreign born. There is an increasing demand for workers who know English, as they are able to follow directions more intelligently.

The operation of the Ohio labor laws has helped to bring about a tendency to prefer workers eighteen and over in this industry. A considerable gap is thus created between the time boys and girls leave school and the time they enter the clothing industry.

How far workers of this type engaged in the garment trades can be helped by education is, of course, a serious problem. Again we may quote from the book itself to show how difficult it is to select those phases of these trades that can be dealt with by an educational institution:

Designers learn their work through apprenticeships to custom tailors and cutters and by taking supplementary courses in drafting and grading of patterns in a designing school. Most designers in Cleveland have had training in designing schools in New York or Chicago.

Organized training for machine operating is found, with but few exceptions, only in the largest establishments. There is a general agreement among

employers that it takes a girl who has never operated a machine before about four weeks to learn an easy operation well enough to be taken on at regular piece rates. A much longer time is required to become a first-class worker on a single operation, and to acquire skill in a group of operations takes from one to two years.

Girls are not usually employed as hand sewers unless they know how to do plain sewing. It takes from six months to a year for a girl with this knowledge to learn factory sewing well enough to be regarded as a regular worker.

Cutting has a so-called apprenticeship lasting from two to six years. There is no formal system of instruction. Boys must pick up the trade from observation and practice. Beginners start as errand boys, cloth boys, bundlers, or helpers. To learn the first grade of cutting—canvas cutting—requires from six months to a year; the second grade—lining and trimming cutting—from one year to a year and a half; and the third grade—cloth cutting—from one to three and a half years. Length of apprenticeship depends upon the ability of the boy to learn, the chance he has of getting instruction on the job, and the opportunity given him of getting into the next higher job.

Training for pressing is not usually given. "Boss" pressers, heads of teams of workers, sometimes break in their helpers. It takes about eight weeks for a green hand to become a good seam presser. To become final presser on skirts and dresses requires from six months to a year, and on jackets and cloaks from two to three years.

Examiners learn their work through previous experience in garment making which takes from three to eight years, according to the difficulty of the work.

Trimmers and assorters learn their work acting as helpers to experienced workers. A year or so of experience is required before these workers become responsible in their positions.

Foremen are selected from the working force, or in a few cases, trained especially for their positions. Frequently workers who are competent to be foremen refuse promotion to these positions. Although there are few opportunities each year for advancement to foremanship, employers declare they cannot get enough persons of ability to fill vacancies. Among nearly 200 foremanship positions in 1914 only six vacancies occurred. A study of the previous experience of foremen and forewomen shows that they come from nearly every line of work in the factory and that they may work anywhere from three months to nine years before being advanced to their positions.

The conclusion which is reached by Miss Bryner in this report is that the present work which is given in the schools does not prepare for the garment-making industries. There ought to be something else undertaken which shall prepare those who are going into these trades for more skilful participation in them. The book therefore recommends the establishment of a school

similar to that which has been successfully carried on in the Manhattan Trade School for Girls. There is some possibility of articulating the requirements of a number of these people with the regular school work in the junior high school, but it is desirable for others that there should be a special trade course.

If this conclusion justifies itself in the further development of the school systems of American cities, it promises to be a recommendation of very great importance. Certainly all who are interested in the organization of the regular subjects in the school curriculum ought to take heed of the fact that there is a strong demand for more work of the type that will prepare laborers directly for the tasks which they are to undertake. Either the special trade schools must be established or there must be a radical modification in the work of the regular departments of the ordinary school.

A third volume¹ deals with the household arts and school luncheons, bringing together all of those activities of the school which can be classified under cooking and sewing.

Cleveland began in 1893 to give courses in the domestic arts. The work has been steadily developed, until now Cleveland has in all of the elementary schools this type of work for the girls in the seventh and eighth grades. Much of the work is carried on in so-called centers to which girls come from a number of different schools, but the work is emphasized and is recognized as an important part of the training of the population. The very large foreign element which is to be found in the Cleveland population dictates an emphasis on this sort of training that is not always recognized in cities where the foreign population is less numerous and where the urgent problems of home economy are less obvious than they are in Cleveland.

The book contains an account of the development of this work not only in the elementary schools, but also in the high schools.

With regard to the luncheons, a number of very interesting paragraphs will be found in the report. One paragraph on p. 135

¹ *Household Arts and School Lunches*. By Alice C. Boughton. Cleveland: Survey Committee of the Cleveland Foundation, 1916. Pp. 170.

shows that the school is undertaking in modern times responsibilities that in earlier years were never dreamed of.

Public schools exist for all children and all children must attend school. This places upon the school the burden of caring for all alike. The exceptional child must be especially provided for at meal time because he is blind or crippled and cannot go home for dinner; the open air or under-nourished child, because his parents are too ignorant or too poor to provide a sufficient amount of proper food for him.

These under-nourished children are a menace not only to themselves, but to all other children. When they are exposed to contagious disease, they succumb almost immediately and in proportion as they are under-nourished. The remedy is simple. Food of the right kind in sufficient amounts is largely the treatment for malnutrition.

Provision for exceptional children is neither difficult nor costly when a lunch service is already organized. Blind and crippled children require the same kind of food as do any others, but need additional service—an extra meal, or one served separately. Likewise open air and under-nourished children do not require a special diet. They need more food at shorter intervals with greater emphasis on certain kinds. “Special feeding” cases, which occur infrequently, call in large measure for specified quantities of foods which are on the regular menu, or which can easily be obtained.

The luncheons which are, as a matter of fact, given in the elementary schools of Cleveland are for the most part charity undertakings. Luncheons are provided by private philanthropy for children who are improperly taken care of at home. The high-school luncheon, on the other hand, is regarded as a regular substitute. It is the argument of the author of this report that something of the same sort as that found in the high schools ought to be worked out in a general way for all of the schools of the city. The book gives a very interesting evidence of the growing consciousness on the part of the school of the importance of domestic instruction. Many cities that have not introduced this form of work into their elementary courses would do well to consider the example of Cleveland and follow it, because this type of training is of great importance in the complete education of the girls of a city.

The Wilson brothers have prepared a book¹ on motivation of school work which is the outcome of a large school experience on

¹ *The Motivation of School Work*. By H. B. and G. M. Wilson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 265.

the part of both of the writers. Mr. H. B. Wilson has performed notable service as chairman of the committee of the National Council which has dealt with economy of the school course. His brother, Mr. G. M. Wilson, as superintendent in Connersville, Indiana, made some excellent studies on arithmetic and hand-writing which will be remembered by all readers of this *Journal*. Together they have collaborated in a book on the motivation of school work.

Their contention is that the fundamental difficulty with the schools at the present time is that the work in which the schools seek to engage the child is not significant to him. Problems ought to be thought out which will give the child a personal interest in the solutions which the school has to suggest.

We may take at random from any of the chapters a typical example of the way in which these writers would interest the child. For example, out of the chapter on geography we may select the following page:

Creating a real problem.—Under the study of shelter, the gradual advance from the log cabin to the present splendid homes was noted carefully, and then the work and the questions involved in building a house today were taken up. Where is wood obtained? Where was more of it obtained formerly? Why? How was it formerly prepared for use in building? How is it now prepared? What kind of wood was used for building formerly, and at the present time? Notice the rafters and joists in a very old house, and compare with the sawed yellow pine in a new house. Where do we get the yellow pine? What would you see if visiting a lumber camp in Mississippi? Where do we get the red-cedar shingles? What was formerly used? In the same way attention was given to other materials, nails, plaster, glass, etc. The idea here was to create for the pupils a real problem, and to go about solving it in a material way without books and without any mere repetition of what was stated in the books. The wide-awake teacher can imagine with what intense interest the pupils reported their investigations of a very old house, and can realize the gradual growth of appreciation because they were permitted to enjoy the benefits of progress and of other people's work.

The study of fuel led to the realization of the fact that wood was formerly used as the only fuel; that forests were ruthlessly destroyed; that at present there is a scarcity of wood; and that prices are high accordingly. Coal is now the chief fuel of the community. The effort was made to find out about this fuel by visiting coalyards, by making inquiry as to the source of the coal-supply, by making an imaginary trip into the coalfields of West Virginia, by

going down into a coalmine, and possibly by coming to know some of the fellows who worked day after day in mining the coal which was burned in their grates and furnaces. Gas as a fuel was also of interest to them. There was a local gas company in the city. Gas was supplied from wells in a neighboring county. Cost and advantages of gas were noted. It was found to be commonly used for lighting, for cooking, for the bath-heater, and for the grate in the fall and late spring.

This is a typical example of the kind of problem that children are supposed to be interested in under this general scheme of motivation. The practical teacher will find a great collection of similar devices in this book and will undoubtedly be stimulated to introduce into the schoolroom by reading these examples many new problems that will be of interest to children. One cannot help feeling, however, as he reads through the book, that many of the problems will be quite as artificial from the point of view of the children as the problems which are now used in the schools. The fact that they are concrete and interesting to adults does not make it at all certain that the children will see the importance of these problems or seek eagerly for their solution. For example, in the illustration chosen above it does not at all follow that little children are going to be eager to find out how houses are built. The problem does not appeal to a child as one of great personal interest. He finds the house there and he has no real motive for reconstructing it even in imagination.

Furthermore, it seems to the present writer that this book and many of the recent discussions in education fail altogether to realize the fact that children have logical interests. They have a kind of curiosity for a completeness of experience which has always been at the root of all scientific development. Primitive people had this curiosity and tried to satisfy it by all sorts of speculations with regard to the world. In the same way little children have a logical need for explanation. They have intellectual interests that are no less logical than the highest intellectual interests of adults. It is unnecessary to assume that it is the practical world and the practical motive which leads to all sorts of thinking. It is quite as certain that an omission anywhere in experience will lead a child to demand that he be given a complete explanation. In fact, anyone who has associated with children will realize that they

very frequently ask such questions as where they came from. They ask the remotest questions about various parts of the universe with which they have no practical connection whatsoever. Much of our school work can be genuinely motivated by an appeal to this logical demand made by the children for a complete form of knowledge. This book does not emphasize the logical demand. It may be regarded as a book full of practical suggestions for practical applications of knowledge.

One further question is suggested by the statement regarding logical interests. Very frequently a child must master a body of knowledge before he develops the desire to apply it. Many practical problems are virtually problems that presuppose the knowledge which the school assumes that it is teaching. The authors have indeed supplied many practical examples of what children might think about, but they have not always given the details of the preparation necessary for children actually to be brought into contact with these problems.

The book stimulates anyone who reads it to vigorous educational thinking and, whatever may be one's view with regard to the proper motivation of school work, he will find in this volume many interesting and useful devices and much stimulating material.

Professor Starch, who has carried on a great many quantitative experiments in education, has brought together in a single volume¹ a number of the tests which can be used in measuring ability in elementary-school subjects. The standard scales prepared by other authors are reproduced in this volume, and Professor Starch has given very fully those tests which he himself has worked out. The book contains very little descriptive material. Indeed, the novice who undertakes to work with these tests would find it difficult to use the material which is published in this book without some further explanation than is here offered. This statement constitutes, we believe, a serious criticism of the volume. The time is past when a mere recognition of scales and methods of measurement is required in school work. Schoolmen have been

¹ *Educational Measurements*. By Daniel Starch. New York: Macmillan, 1916. Pp. 202.

shown these devices for exact scientific work again and again. Many of them are easily accessible. For example, Mr. Starch reproduces Ayres's spelling scale. Anyone can secure this very readily through the Russell Sage Foundation and it seems hardly necessary to include it again in the publication of another author.

The main trouble at the present time is that many people who are trying to use these measuring devices have not been properly trained to interpret their results or even to apply the tests to school situations. What is needed in a book of educational measurements is, therefore, a careful and discriminating discussion of the methods of using the tests rather than a mere enumeration of these tests or their reproduction.

Indeed, this book contains two or three sets of tests that nobody can use with any degree of profit. For example, the drawing scale which is once more reproduced here has never been productive of any advantageous results. It would be very misleading for anyone who was attempting at the present time to understand the scientific movement in education to be held responsible for any adequate use of this particular scale.

There are a number of very good forms of measurement of the different school activities at the present time. Mr. Starch's work has been made accessible in various publications and the republication of it under a single cover hardly enhances its value. On the other hand, a number of very good scales other than those used by Mr. Starch are now available, and anyone who is going to make school measurements is quite as likely to want the arithmetic material that has been developed in recent surveys or by Mr. Courtis as to utilize Mr. Starch's scales. It is doubtful whether the scientific use of scales is greatly aided by a narrow selection.

Finally, the publication of scales in a bound volume is likely to make them very clumsy. They will have to be reproduced if they are used with the children; they cannot be used in the bound form in which they here appear.

By the time one has taken up these various considerations he wonders why the book is published. It is more important at the present time that all sorts of material of this measurement type be made accessible and that the results of applications in careful

school surveys be published so that a comparative body of material may be created which will help the individual worker in making his interpretation. Mr. Starch's volume undoubtedly will have some value in making these scales known, but it is not the type of book that ought to be encouraged at this stage of the measurement movement in public schools.

A volume¹ which suggests a difficult school problem by its title is issued by the Riverside Press under the authorship of Mr. William H. Dooley, principal of the Technical High School at Fall River, Massachusetts. The title of this book is *The Education of the Ne'er-Do-Well*. The problem of the child who cannot succeed with the ordinary course of study is described in the early chapters of this book. He is regarded as the legitimate successor of the boy who in earlier days became an apprentice and learned a trade. In those days it was not demanded that everybody should reach a high level of intellectual life. There was, however, a position made for the boy who, being somewhat dull with books, was nevertheless skilful with his hands. The question is raised in this volume how the modern boy, who would in earlier days have been an apprentice, shall be provided for under the public education system. He needs to be provided for. It must not be required of him that he pursue the same type of intellectual training that is offered to his more brilliant intellectual brother. The course of study must be adapted to his needs.

One chapter of the book gives, by way of answer to this question, some account of the manner in which the effort is made abroad to meet the needs of those who cannot take the academic course in the schools. From this point on American experiments are described in detail. These American experiments are given with the programs and with some account of the way in which these programs have been fitted to the needs of children of exceptional trade ability but of general academic deficiency.

Whenever one lays down a book of this sort he wonders whether it is true that there are young people in the world who could not

¹ *The Education of the Ne'er-Do-Well*. By William H. Dooley. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 164.

learn from books if the proper stimulus is offered to them. Would it not be better for us to strive in our school work to bring about that kind of relationship between book learning and hand learning that will make it possible for every child, whatever the character of his intelligence, to make use of science and all of the information that can be collected out of books? There is no such fundamental antithesis, at least in the early days of a child's life, as one finds represented in arguments of this sort. Indeed, one finds many suggestions in this book that the author would agree with a view of this type, because the course of study which is recommended for these children who do not get on in ordinary school work is not at all the kind of unmixed trade course that is sometimes suggested for them. Indeed, here and there emphasis is laid on the academic subjects. These, however, must be modified in their content so as to attract the interest and attention of children of the kind under discussion.

At all events, the problem is a grave one and, however fully we accept the solution which the author gives, we are all coming to be aware of the problem and of the necessity of meeting this problem by some modification of ordinary school organization.

The Binet tests have been so widely used and so much discussed that very little comment will be necessary to introduce Professor Terman's new book¹ dealing with these tests. As the title of his book indicates, these tests measure not the special types of experience which the school aims to cultivate through the teaching of reading, number, and the other particular courses; these tests deal, rather, with general intelligence. They aim to select from the total school population those who are backward in general or precocious. The assumption is that if one does not have intelligence, he does not have the possibilities of cultivating the particular types of knowledge which are necessary in the school subjects. It does not always follow that a child who cannot read is lacking in general intelligence, but it does follow that if a child is lacking in general intelligence, he cannot learn to read. Conversely,

¹ *The Measurement of Intelligence*. By Lewis M. Terman. Houghton Mifflin Co., 1916. Pp. 362.

school work may not utilize to the fullest possible extent the larger powers of the brilliant child. Consequently all school work must be checked by studies of general intelligence. Any defective who does not have this general intelligence should be eliminated from the regular work of the school so as to save the school organization from the necessity of futile efforts to train him in particular subjects. Any forward child should be allowed to progress more rapidly than the average.

Professor Terman has described at length the assumptions which underlie these intelligence tests and has described also the original tests themselves, together with the modifications which have been worked out at Stanford University. He then gives in detail the various tests for the different years, carrying these beyond the years that are provided for in the original Binet tests. There are chapters dealing with tests for the average adult and for the superior adult. The material under each year has been worked over carefully so as to adapt it somewhat better than was the original test material to the years in question. The revisions which have been undertaken have been tried out extensively enough so that the author speaks with a great deal of assurance about the possibility of using these tests in dealing with children of the grades designated in each of them.